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Land policy REVIEW

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UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE
BUREAU OF AGRICULTURAL ECONOMICS



Editorial Notes

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WE WON'T NEED to plow up a lot of additional land to get this additional food. We did that in the first World War, and a lot of land went into wheat and other crops that should have stayed in grass. We realized this fact too late, and we've been paying for the mistake ever since. We can get our extra production next year by shifting some of the land from crops which are not needed to crops which are needed. We can draw on the reserves of corn and other grains in the Ever-Normal Granary to feed the livestock and poultry that will boost our production of meat, milk, and eggs.

—CLAUDE R. WICKARD.

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M-Day COMES FOR *Agricultural* RESEARCH

By M. M. KELSO. *Researchers like to do research in a quiet atmosphere where they can come to amply supported and unbiased conclusions. More power to them. But President Roosevelt has said: "The shooting has started!" So this writer asks what agricultural researchers can do to help win the war and gives some answers.*



MOBILIZATION day for agricultural research has come. Every activity of government from now on out must contribute directly to victory for the democracies and to devising post-war shock absorbers.

During this war, agricultural research and every other government activity become a matter of priorities. We must do the things most important to do now and at once. We must marshal our own and the Nation's manpower and resources to do the job at hand most effectively.

We are at the point at which much agricultural research is to be regarded from a basically opportunistic attitude, although researchers and scientists like to base their

decisions upon 100 percent evidence. The scientist who has 50 percent of the evidence in a case is better equipped to make recommendations with respect to that situation than is a man with 1 percent or even 20 percent of the data. We must go directly to the heart of a problem; we must concentrate on the meat-and-potato course—not the salad and dessert courses; we must win this war with the knowledge we have at hand—even if that information represents only 50 percent of the total picture.

When a great fire rages in a city, all fire companies fight to put out fires. They no longer have time to do research on the general subject of putting out fires, they no longer have

time to devise better equipment to be used, and they no longer have time to drill. It may be that their knowledge and techniques and co-ordination could be improved before tackling the great fires, but they do not have time. Agricultural researchers are in this same situation right now.

We must bring our equipment and training to bear on hypothetical tactical questions, such as our Army's General Staff raises in making military plans. This is the kind of research that enabled Hitler to prepare for every possible situation.

Research in this country legitimately can concentrate on probable situations that will arise during the war. This research will consist of economic and social analyses that will directly aid in winning the war and of planning that will minimize dislocations both during and after the war. But agricultural researchers may have to give answers—even on the basis of 50 percent or less evidence—to questions coming out of extreme situations.

Accordingly, I want to raise some possible questions that agricultural economists, by virtue of their training in specialized research techniques, can aid in answering. In the course of this speculation, I want to bring up matters that we probably have not thought about as contributions that we can make to winning the war.

Farm Labor

Suppose we look at farm labor research. We have farm labor estimates, a farm labor survey, a survey of farm labor shortage, a periodic survey of labor near new defense

plants, and then we have analyses of these. But farm labor is a resource vital to defense production and nowhere have we agricultural researchers considered where this labor resource could be directed most effectively in a war economy.

On the basis of current research activities we can state, possibly, what labor is available for defense industries, and what labor farmers need at least seasonally. But there are other broad aspects to this problem that might come to be of great significance during a drawn-out conflict.

In this setting, we would have to know how much farm labor could be released if we drastically cut the production of certain surplus crops. We would have to know that specific point in a war period when we should withdraw labor being used on big agricultural construction projects and should put that labor to work in other fields. We would have to know what adjustments should be made in agricultural subsidy programs so that this country could produce exactly those commodities that we would vitally need.

We might have to come to the point where it would be necessary to set up a labor priorities board that would direct labor into jobs that would have immediate emergency needs. Farmers might have to have permits to hire farm labor. It might be necessary to prevent shifting of any group from one region to another, or it might be necessary, on the other hand, to direct this movement of seasonal farm labor to most effective immediate uses.

Extension of wage-hour legislation to farm labor is being agitated now. What analyses of this extension have we agricultural economists

made? What would be the effects on defense production?

The whole concept of agricultural subsidy programs may have to be scrutinized and redirected to promote maximum production of certain products in certain regions. At the same time, the relationship of these programs to other forces, such as prices, in encouraging changes in production should be thoroughly investigated.

Some questions that may have to be answered shortly by experts in transportation and marketing research are: What foods should be stored in New York City or at other strategic points in case transportation facilities are disrupted by sabotage or bombing? What grains must be carried to cities before transportation facilities are used to full capacity for other commodities? What feeds do the Eastern dairies need to have stored now? Where?

Decentralization

We can answer many questions about housing, transportation, labor supply, and other elements essential to decentralization of certain industries. For instance, many processing plants could be located away from the East and in the South and West. If shifts occur from cotton to more diversified production in the South, condenseries, cheese factories, canneries, cold storage plants, and creameries would be essential there. Regional storehouses, perhaps, should be placed at strategic points in the South, as well as in Eastern cities. Again, we might want to develop mobile industries.

It is easy in this type of speculation to think that regional patterns

of production and distribution will be greatly changed as a direct result of war. This would be merely an extension of that movement of food processing plants into the South and the warehousing of foods at strategic points. At any rate, we must gather all our evidence to help decide whether greater effort should be made to expand transportation facilities or to expand regional self-sufficiency.

Already we have inventoried farmers' needs for machinery, and we have estimated scrap iron and steel on farms that would be available for war needs. But we do not know how much machinery could be repaired and put into operating condition, nor how much machinery could be converted into horse-drawn equipment.

This raises a point that requires an evaluation of the Nation's needs for oil, iron, and rubber. If farmers cannot buy tractors, or if it is necessary to save gasoline, tires, metals, and transportation facilities, more horses must be used. Over a period of years now, land has been shifted from production of feed for horses to food for humans. What should we do about the reverse situation, if it develops?

Disastrous after-effects of land speculation are obvious. Moreover, speculation bears directly on production through diverting energy and resources. Inflation may cut increases in production, and this condition stimulates farmers' fears by remembrances of the other war. They say: "We raised wheat and you promised us \$2.25 per bushel. Then you left us holding the bag!"

In view of this attitude, it is possible that moderate commodity price

increases that promise stability may be more effective than spectacular temporary increases. This is a question that researchers must answer.

Tenure research has a direct bearing on agricultural production during a war. Tenure patterns in an area may be well adapted to cotton production, but they may hinder dairy production. The landlord-tenant relationship in some areas might freeze the production system.

This may suggest revisions in agricultural subsidy programs to bring about changes in landlord-tenant relationships in certain areas.

Evacuation

Most countries at war have found it necessary to make plans for moving civilians from cities. Perhaps a rural housing survey around New York City and other large Eastern seaboard cities would give the proper information for that day when it might be necessary to move children and old people out of these cities into the country. How many could agriculture provide for? What system can be devised for carrying the cost of these moves, and what compensation should be given to farm-

ers for board and room of the refugees? Again, what school facilities are available, and what payments in lieu of taxes should be made for this schooling?

My speculation has been directed to underscoring the fact that agricultural research men soon will be faced with the necessity of giving the best answers available to questions raised during this war. Many of these questions will be motivated by the desire to plan for the worst possible situation, as well as the best or the intermediate.

Thus, it is not enough for researchers to provide techniques that will merely make it easier for the farmer to make his contributions to winning the war. On the contrary, it is now necessary to mobilize agriculture in its totality. We cannot, in the midst of a war, worry too much about the effects of war on farmers. But on the other hand, we do have to consider the effects of war on production and on morale of rural people, including farmers.

We may find, then, that we will have to use not the usual *research* techniques to answer quickly the questions asked us, but, rather, *blitzsearch*.

Knowledge

Agriculture is, of all industrial pursuits, the richest in facts and the poorest in their comprehension. Facts are like grains of sand which are moved by the wind but principles are these same grains cemented into rocks.

—LIEBIG

Liberty Hyde Bailey

STILL CARRIES ON

By JAMES S. KNAPP. *A grand old man of agriculture retired in 1913, but he is as busy as ever at 84 years. "There is no excellence without labor," he thinks. "One cannot dream one's self into either usefulness or happiness."*



TO THE PRESENT generation of Cornell University students, Liberty Hyde Bailey is relatively unknown. They know that a building on the campus is called Bailey Hall; they occasionally hear the name of such a man; they have in some traditional way come to associate that name with achievement and honor, but they seldom see the man.

For Liberty Hyde Bailey retired from Cornell in 1913—to embark on another productive period of his life. He had gained a reputation and filled an ordinary lifetime with accomplishment, but he is still at work today, in his eighty-fourth year.

Most of his "contemporaries" are dead; others whom he chose for the faculty of the College of Agriculture in the early part of the century now bear the title of *emeritus*. But Bailey carries on.

He was reared on a Michigan farm and prepared for college in a no-grade school; that is, the high school he attended was called high not only because advanced pupils were enrolled, but also because it was located on the second floor of a

two-story school building. Quills pens were still in use, and pen knives were carried to trim the quills. He was graduated from Michigan Agricultural College in 1882 and went to Cornell in 1888 as professor of "general and experimental horticulture," which was the first of the "dividing up" of duties that later was to mark his own administration. He became dean of the college and director of the experiment station in 1903.

His first official publication at Cornell, *Windbreaks in Relation to Fruit Growing*, appeared in 1889. In 1890 he made the first tests at the university on the spraying of plants. From 1890 to 1896 he published 40 bulletins on horticultural subjects, mostly pomology. He became interested in teaching nature study in rural schools of the State; as a result, extension courses were established. He wrote a book, *The Nature Study Idea*, which had a definite influence on general elementary education. Cornell has been a pioneer in this field.

To him belongs credit for initiating the first investigations on control of plant diseases at the experiment station. One of his earliest acts as

dean was the establishment of a department of plant pathology.

Plant Diseases

When H. H. Whetzel, still an honored professor, was a young instructor and sought funds for a study of plant diseases of New York, he suggested that Bailey make him a professor of plant pathology.

"But I never heard of that title before," Bailey said.

"Neither did I," responded Whetzel.

"Do you think you can handle it?"

"I can," the young instructor replied.

"Then you're a professor of plant pathology. Now go to work."

Whetzel landed the first industrial fellowship in the college. The dean later backed him up for accepting money for the cost of research.

From 1888 to 1903, 18 bulletins were published on vegetables, including mushrooms, by the experiment station. Bailey was author or joint author of 16. One of the most forward-looking of the early studies dealt with the effect of artificial light on growth and reproduction of plants.

He established a department of farm mechanics in 1907, and a separate department for dairy industry. Work on limnology was begun the same year. Bailey recognized that large areas of underwater lands of the State, although rich in organic materials, had little other value. A course was started, a professor hired, and it was the first university course in this subject anywhere. From this "aquiculture" has come.

He conducted research in floriculture and ornamental horticulture,

organizing a separate department in 1913. He was instrumental in organizing the forestry department in 1910; Cornell had started college instruction in forestry in 1898.

Large Faith

Bailey lived in the days of large faith when the college "must do a peculiarly public work" to merit State support. He was both a great teacher and a great initiator. His influence enabled him to obtain the legislative aid that contributed so largely to the growth of the college.

It was comparatively easy in those days to find instructors in every field of knowledge or learning but agriculture. Remember, the oldest of the agricultural colleges, Michigan, was opened in 1857, only 11 years before Cornell offered instruction. Those were the days when "ag" students were sneered at, and it took a man of Bailey's caliber to steer them right in their thinking. He fired their enthusiasm with dreams of a new culture and a new agriculture and made them think of themselves as social pioneers. He maintained that "we must have a rural civilization that will be as effective and satisfying as other civilizations." He made the students think in terms of the "country life movement."

There were no agricultural textbooks.

"We were dealing with a new field of instruction and had to learn how to teach it," Bailey says. He started the Rural Science series to try to meet this need, agreeing to publish until he was 60. He was still writing them as he neared 80.

One of his classic statements has special application today. "I doubt

the philosophy that would improve the open country by moving the attractions of the city into it," he said. He maintained that novices could learn farm practices in college, but not farm conditions.

Dr. Bailey has something of the puritan and pioneer in his make-up, with something mystical in his deep blue eyes. His hair is snow-white; he wears plain suits; and his only apparent concession to old age is a pair of gold-rimmed glasses. He is tall and erect, of distinguished bearing. He works all day and much of the night in his research laboratory, collecting plants, and classifying them.

"There is no excellence without labor," he once asserted. "One cannot dream one's self into either usefulness or happiness."

"Vacations often result in more harm than good," he told his students on one occasion, "because they are likely to be vacant. I hope you have all had a busy summer."

Changes

Bailey is not a person to dwell in retrospect. To him, the good old days were but a foundation for the present and the future—no better and no worse.

"Things must be similar to be compared, and the past is quite unlike the present," he says. "There have been many changes. I can simply say times are different."

A few years ago he said, "I cannot agree that the spirit of individualism which has always distinguished the American farmer needs now to be crushed in the interests of organized affairs. There is nothing antagonistic or impossible

between the idea of a man thinking and feeling for himself and the idea of his being willing and able to work with others.

"The great danger is that the organizing type of mind comes soon to consider the organization the whole thing * * *. What justifies any form of democratic organization, imperfections and all, is that it is a means of education and a stimulation to individual growth."

Writing has become a habit with him. He does not know how many books he has written, but thinks there are about 25. His publisher maintains they number more than 70. Most of his writing is confined to scientific literature that never reaches the layman. His work is first done in longhand; he says dictating interferes with the free flow of thought.

Because he felt that American agriculture needed reliable reference books, Bailey produced his *Cyclopedia of American Horticulture* and *Cyclopedia of American Agriculture*, each in four volumes. Most men would have considered this ample for a life's work.

Another monumental work was *RUS*, which was for agriculture what *Who's Who* was for American leadership in general. *RUS* is the Latin word for "country"; to Bailey it signified *Rural Uplook Service*. He spent nearly 4 years collecting data for the first volume, which appeared in 1918. Nearly 3,000 names were in it, in contrast to nearly 7,000 entries in the 1930 (the last) edition. More than 18,000 persons were solicited for that issue. Other volumes appeared in 1920 and 1925. Bailey did not include his own name in the final book.

Dr. Bailey gave Cornell, in 1935, one of the largest private herbariums in the country, which includes a comprehensive record of cultivated plants of the world. It comprised 125,000 mounted herbarium sheets rich in the cultivated floras of the world, 3,000 technical or professional books, thousands of photographs, a garden area on which to grow plants of record, card indexes, and working equipment. Many of the specimens are not duplicated elsewhere.

To designate the collection, a new word had to be coined. "Hortorium" was not to be found in any dictionary, but Bailey originated it, defining it as a "horto-botanical establishment and enterprise."

The University established an administrative unit in the College of Agriculture known as the Liberty Hyde Bailey Hortorium. Dr. Bailey is director; his daughter Ethel is curator. Graduate students work

there. Bailey's workshop was once a livery stable.

The daughter is his constant companion and helper. Concerning women in industry, he said: "So far as occupation is concerned, the sex of an individual should not matter. Ability is what counts."

Bailey has traveled to many parts of the world to study and collect plants, including China, South America, New Zealand, Mexico, and the West Indies. He is a good traveler; he accepts hardships as part of the work.

He received a citation and medalion at the National 4-H Club Camp in Washington last June for his efforts "instrumental in building sentiment which led to the establishment of the Extension Service." Honors, medals, awards, citations—he has them galore, from many societies, from many lands. But he remains the scientist—looking toward the future.

When peace comes what will be our position at the peace table and in world trade?

If ours is a high price structure, the lean and gaunt nations, even if defeated, will be able to undersell us in the markets of the world.

With a low price structure, America can hold her own and demand as a price for economic collaboration just terms of peace.

A general formula of action (for total defense) must be evolved to coordinate and synchronize the multiplicity of national and international efforts and to organize supply and demand so that the things that are needed are provided when and where they are needed with the least injury to the industrial fabric of the nation.

—BERNARD BARUCH

Dust Bowlers GET A THIRD CHANCE

By D. HARPER SIMMS. *Twice burned, twice wary: People from Texas, Oklahoma, and Arkansas exposed their new farm lands in western New Mexico to wind erosion—the force that drove them out of former homes. But they learned the danger in time.*



HIDDEN in the rolling woodland of western New Mexico is the village of Fence Lake. Its population of 80-odd families is made up largely of former "Dust Bowl" farmers. But for the grace of a friendly tip, some of the last of Uncle Sam's free land, and a piñon nut crop—but for those things and their own indomitable courage—most of them would now be itinerant farm laborers.

Fence Lake cannot be found on highway or railroad maps. Nor, as the name indicates, is there a lake; there used to be one, but it dried up several years ago. Just the same, there is a town hidden away in the cedar and piñon hills about 60 miles south of Gallup.

Fence Lake first came into being in 1930. In that year several families, pushed off land ravaged by wind and water erosion, hit the highway westward and stumbled onto a pocket of wooded, sandy-loam country that was labeled "free land." They sent word back to Texas, Oklahoma, Arkansas—to brothers, cousins, sons and daughters, and friends; some strangers also heard the message.

"Come West," they said, "there's free land here; land that, when cleared, should grow beans, corn, and cane."

The word spread. It sounded mighty good to families who had already pulled stakes or were eking out a precarious living from desiccated acres. Free land! Magic words? So a miniature westward movement—with a definite destination—got under way. A movement of families, and of friends, and strangers. A movement of people eager to get new land for themselves. Each year from 1930 to 1935 (when homesteading was stopped) a few families made their way to the new community via Santa Fe, where papers were filed at the land office.

Hardships aplenty were experienced by the pioneers of the 1930's, who found their way to Fence Lake. There were the vital matters of clearing patches to farm; of seed, stock, a house to live in; and most important of all—food. The early comers had few economic and physical assets. They did have determination.

Joe Akard filed his claim in 1930. After paying the filing fee, he had 10 cents in cash and a few groceries.

Mrs. Jamie Link, a widow with four children, arrived in a covered wagon. Her assets were filing papers, a \$5 bill, a team of horses, and five cows.

U. N. Walker filed in 1930. His inventory included a debt of \$100, four small ponies, and four cows.

Chester Brown came in a covered wagon: "I had a couple of plows, a home-made harrow with oak pegs for teeth, one team of horses, a cow, a yearling, and one calf. I wouldn't have stayed except that just after arriving in March there was a heavy snowstorm and I couldn't get out."

Ray Boyett and Major Bruton, two of the early settlers, recall that when they came to Fence Lake all of their assets were liabilities.

Pioneers

Pioneers, these early comers to Fence Lake—pioneers wrapped in twentieth-century dress.

The town is at an elevation of 7,000 feet; the winters are long and cold. Because of this, most of the land seekers arrived in the late spring and summer seasons. They built crude shelters during the first months, cleared what land they could, and supplemented the little food they brought with them with the nuts of the piñon trees, and what small game they could kill or capture.

In truth, without the piñon nuts, Fence Lake might never have come into being. These tiny edible nuts, borne in small cones by the piñon tree, furnished both food and a cash crop for the first inhabitants. Men, women, and children worked long and hard during the autumn of 1930 gathering nuts to be shipped

to Eastern markets. The few dollars thus earned bought small stocks of food to carry them through the winter.

But when spring came the people turned to the land; laboriously they cut small patches out of the cedar and piñon forests. There they planted beans.

Today, the families of the village have homesteaded 92,000 acres of land; about 24,000 acres have been cleared for farming. This tremendous job could not have been accomplished in so short a time but for the cooperation of all the settlers.

They suffered hardships together, and they worked together. Neighbor helped neighbor; the few available tools were exchanged; food was swapped; labor traded.

Without that community sharing of individual successes and failures, there would not be today a farming village of good log houses, a community hospital, a school, and churches.

Next to food, water is probably the greatest problem that faces Fence Lake people. There are no streams in the area, and only a spring or two. Few can afford the expense of digging a well. Even today, many families have to haul water long distances or buy it at 10 cents a barrel when it is used for drinking purposes, and 5 cents a barrel when it is for stock.

Again—the Dust

There was normal rainfall (about 15 inches annually) and little wind during the first 3 or 4 years of settlement.

"It was a Heaven on Earth to those of us who came out of the

dust bowl," Mrs. Link says. "Fifteen inches of rain, fairly productive soil once it was cleared, no dust storms—and our own land. No wonder we stuck."

But as additional land was broken between 1934 and 1937 there were more and larger openings among the cedar and piñon trees. In 1936 soil started to move before the winds and drift out of the fields. Soil began to pile up in the rabbit brush at the edges of the clearings.

This was an alarming sign. Most of the farmers had seen it before. They knew well that while the topsoil was fairly productive, it was generally shallow. A few years of blowing, and all their work would be for nothing. Fence Lake citizens would be on the move again. And that was the very thing they did not want.

They tackled their wind-erosion problem with the stubbornness that characterized their endurance of hardships during the first years. They went to Gallup to see department technicians. They laid their problems, along with statements of their resources, before every agricultural worker that could be found. What they wanted was to know how to protect fields against soil blowing; how best to conserve the meager rainfall. They didn't want another dust bowl to slip up on them.

"We knew we had to fight this wind-erosion problem if we were to stay off the highways and off relief rolls," Joe Akard said. "We worked and fought for our farms and we had no intention of moving off them without putting up a battle."

In the fall of 1937, and following the advice given them by technicians,

the people of Fence Lake went to work as they had never worked before.

Conservation

Where fields were laid parallel to prevailing winds, they changed them and plowed at right angles to the wind. Soon they were terracing fields, changing the field rows to run on the level, planning close-growing bands of strip crops to break the sweep of the wind. They started doing these things on more than 8,000 acres. Slowly, methodically, as their resources would permit, but with an eagerness almost born of desperation, they have carried on a grim fight against wind erosion for the past 3 years.

Today, instead of breaking out new fields in large square blocks, they plow on the contour of slopes and leave field borders of trees and brush to halt the cutting power of wind. Steep slopes and tops of hills are no longer cleared. Such land is left in trees or put under grass.

The growing season at Fence Lake is short. Frost often comes as early as the middle of May and as late as September. For that reason crops are limited to those adapted to short seasons. Pinto beans are the principal crop, but under their plans of conservation farming, landowners are not planting all their fields to beans. They use a rotation with corn, cane, and feed crops. As the feed crops increase, silos are planned to preserve the feed through the winter.

Farming is hazardous at Fence Lake. So much depends upon rainfall. Even more depends upon holding rainfall on the land. The very existence of the community

rests upon the success of the constant fight against wind erosion.

The men don't take all the credit. They proudly point to the resoluteness of their women, who make the gardens and can vegetables for winter use, and help with bean threshing and other chores during those rare times when the men are able to get a day job. Money thus earned pays for fuel for the tractors. The women banded together and promoted the building of a community hospital. The women are proudest of their modern school which has grown from a single-teacher, 12-by-12 log house into a six-teacher school plant, complete with a bus to transport some of the 100-odd students.

With the gradual building of the community came a slow increase in the individual resources. Chester Brown, for instance, came to Fence Lake with a cow, a yearling, and a calf; he now has eight cows, eight calves, one bull, and a heifer yearling. Each year he sells a beef or two. From his beef sales, he has bought chickens and chicken feed. He sells more than \$100 worth of eggs yearly.

Help

Having no bank credit, many of the farmers have obtained FSA loans to buy farm equipment. They use the larger pieces of machinery on their own farms, and help pay for them by renting to neighbors. Others are taking advantage of water facilities development work to dig badly needed wells.

"Yes, we borrowed money from the Government, and we used all

the help that we could possibly get from local, State and Federal Agricultural Agencies," Joe Akard says. "We think that is good business for us and for the country. We know of no other way that it would have been possible for us to meet our individual and community problems."

Fence Lake people feel that they are worth more to the Nation by fighting to stay on the land than they could possibly be if they depended on public funds for their support as transient laborers.

Right now the Fence Lake community is talking about forming a soil conservation district. They've had to work closely together to survive thus far, and feel that by continuing to work together in a conservation cooperative, they will be able to work out greater protection for their lands and stability for their community.

A new philosophy, a new love for the land, has developed among the people.

"The land," Chester Brown declares, "is good to people who take care of it; who protect it from the winds and farm it properly. We learned that lesson the hard way on the farms back East."

These pioneers have made something for themselves and they are fighting every inch of the way to keep it. The battle is never over down there. They can never let up. And they won't. They had poor bean crops in 1937, 1938, and 1939. Two of the 3 years they suffered from drought. Last summer their crops were damaged by too much rain at the wrong time. But there's always the future. They are just starting.

The Place of Land in SOUTHWESTERN HISTORY

By HERBERT O. BRAYER. *The patterns of land ownership, set generations ago, still influence policies in the Southwest. This discussion of some of the aspects of early grants furnishes a vital background for several current problems.*



FEW WHO TRAVEL through New Mexico, visiting the small adobe villages and marvelling at the productivity of the many small farms, can conceive of a time when these rich lands—limited though they may be—were the source of deep and heated controversy; controversy which sometimes ended with the roar of the frontier Colt. Volumes have been written about the history of New Mexico, the colorful Spaniards, the long and fabulously remunerative Santa Fe Trail, the war-like Indians and other aspects of its colorful background. The chief source of this history, however, has been long overlooked. What part did the land play in this story?

To a large extent the material presented applies not only to New Mexico, but also to Arizona and southern Colorado, and in a somewhat limited degree to California, Louisiana, and Texas. Students of social and economic affairs of Latin America will readily recognize many similarities between land problems in the Southwest and those existing in the nations to the south.

Of unusual interest and import-

ance are the pueblo Indian land grants of New Mexico. Recognized by the Spanish kings and later by the Mexican and American governments, the pueblo Indians are the possessors of large land grants which they hold in fee and which do not possess the characteristics of the usual Indian reservation established by the Government of the United States. As an agricultural people, land was vital to the very existence of the pueblo Indians. Before the arrival of the European, it would appear that the concept of private ownership—or ownership in fee—did not exist.

Every indication points to a communal theory of land holding among these aborigines. Despite the existence of this communal ownership concept, it is doubtful that there existed any set or established conception of the physical limits of such communal holdings.

With the introduction of the theory of private ownership by the European settlers, the communal idea naturally met with serious difficulties. Without understanding the action or the change it would make in the status of the land, many Indians were induced to sell or barter

large and valuable tracts which rightfully belonged to the communal holdings of the pueblos. The *Recopilacion de las Leyes de los Reynos de las Indias*, as well as numerous decrees, *cedulas* and *autos*, contain literally hundreds of regulations designed to protect the native and to prevent him from alienating his land.

Thus, along with the principle of private ownership, there also developed the principle of guardianship. Needless to say, many of the regulations imposed by the Spanish crown were disregarded.

It is manifest, however, that each principle altered to some extent the social and economic life of the Indian. He was restricted in movement. The lands of the pueblo in which he lived were definitely defined, thus limiting the extent to which he could expand.

The Indian land policies of the Spanish period were thrown into confusion by the Mexican Revolution and the subsequent independence of that country in 1821. The Plan of Iguala, adopted by the revolutionary government declared:

"That all the inhabitants of New Spain without distinction, whether European, African or Indian, are citizens of this monarchy."

Racial Equality

The Treaty of Cordova, the Mexican Declaration of Independence, and several subsequent decrees confirmed this principle of racial equality. Its importance lies in the fact that apparently the Indians were to be considered as citizens with all the rights and privileges appertaining to such a status, including the alienation of their land

which had been restricted under the Spanish rule. This was precisely the stand taken by the courts for almost half a century after New Mexico became a part of the United States.

While there is no question that the acts of the Mexican Government did confer citizenship upon the Indians, there is serious doubt as to just what is meant by citizenship. Admitting that the Indians were "Mexican citizens," it does not necessarily follow that such citizenship had no abridgments, no reservations, or no disabilities, and that in the matter of land alienation all disability had been removed. There can be no denying that dependents, such as wards, are citizens, even though certain definite limitations or restraints are placed upon their citizenship. It was more than 50 years before the courts of the United States recognized this principle when applied to the pueblo Indians of New Mexico.

It is evident from official archives that the Mexican Government intended no change in Indian status insofar as land was concerned. It must be noted, however, that during the period of Mexican sovereignty a general laxity in the enforcement of existing regulations led to many cases of illegal alienation of Indian land.

This naturally aided in the decline of the pueblos and the assimilation of the Indian. In summarizing the Indian land policy of the Mexican Government, it is of primary importance to recognize that the pueblo Indians were still considered wards of the Government. Pueblo lands remained communal property, and no individual Indian held title to any portion thereof.

When the United States acquired the Southwest under the treaty of Guadalupe-Hidalgo in 1848, it was confronted with an Indian problem for which it had no precedents. From its inception, the Government had based its policy upon the assumption that the Indian was a savage requiring disciplinary control. Indians were settled on reservations as wards of the Government and laws were made to prevent the white settlers from entering Indian lands. Since there was already a large Mexican population, this policy could not be applied in New Mexico.

Another unprecedented situation confronted the United States. How could the traditional American policy applied to the nomadic tribes of the United States be applied to a sedentary people with permanent villages and with large tracts of land to which was claimed a simple title? Besides these questions, the treaty with Mexico bound the United States to recognize the full rights, property, and so forth, of Mexican citizens in the conquered territory. By the Mexican constitu-

tion the pueblo Indians were citizens! The treaty had hardly been signed when controversies developed over the right of the Indians to alienate their land without governmental consent.

Despite all documentary evidence to the contrary, the territorial courts for 30 years held that the pueblo Indian was, for all intents and purposes, not an Indian but a citizen with all the rights pertaining thereto, including the right to alienate his land.

This ruinous policy, which contributed largely to the rapid decline of the pueblos, continued until 1913 when the Supreme Court, confessing that it had based its former decisions upon fallacious information, reversed itself and declared the pueblo Indians to be "Indians," and therefore wards of the Government. As such, of course, they could not alienate their lands and any alienations previously made were invalid.

Every possible means was used to evade the effects of this decision. The final solution came in 1925 when the Pueblo Lands Board investigated each non-Indian claim after which title was quieted by the action of the Federal courts. Today, for the first time since late in the seventeenth century, the pueblo Indians of New Mexico are free from land controversy and secure in their communal land holdings.

Spanish Settlers

Our attention is now turned to land development among the Spanish settlers in New Mexico from 1598 to 1821. The Spanish Crown made three types of land grants in the Southwest: the individual or private grant, the community grant,

Plan

It is the plan of this Government to turn the full measure of its economic strength to bringing help, relief, and sustenance to the tens of millions of families in many countries who are now hungry, cold, homeless, sick, separated or in prison by the ruthless act of a group of tyrants.

—ADOLF R. BERLE, JR.

and the *empresario* grant. It is possible to trace the history of many of these grants and to glean from the archives some of the life and customs of the period.

One type of Spanish land grant frequently given in New Mexico was the community grant. Such grants are familiar to the student of medieval history, as well as of Spanish-American history.

The accepted size for a *pueblo* was 4 leagues. In the founding of the town, the first thing done was to lay out the *Plaza*, which was to be one and one-half times as long as it was wide. The four principal streets were to leave the Plaza from each side and in cold climates the streets were to be wide, and in warm climates, narrow. The land was divided into *Solares*, *Ejidos*, *Dehesas*, and *Propios*. The *Solares*, located in the town proper, were building lots distributed among the settlers by lot, and which had to be occupied and improved within a limited time. The *Suertes*, or agricultural lots, were devoted to the raising of maize, wheat, beans, squash, and some cotton and fruit.

The town commons, or *Ejidos*, were used for the raising of livestock, for recreational purposes, and as land reserve for future settlers.

The *Dehesas* served as pasturage for livestock, chiefly small stock in New Mexico such as sheep, goats, and pigs. Horses were also kept in the *Dehesas* from which they were frequently stolen by the Indians.

The *Propios* were government lands, but were usually rented for a term of 5 years to pay municipal expenses. Some community grants contained the provision that the grantees were exempt from taxation for 4 years, provided the settlers

built houses, cultivated the land, and raised stock. Communal timber lands were sometimes provided.

Numerous community grants in New Mexico followed this general outline. The effect of such grants cannot be said to have served as an inducement to large groups of settlers. New Mexico remained essentially rural and the rancho with its many activities served as both economic and social center.

Lack of money or money crops made it necessary either to produce or manufacture the necessities of life. The need for a permanent labor supply, to till the fields and care for the livestock, resulted in the introduction of slavery, and after that institution fell into decline its close relative, peonage, became general in New Mexico, as well as in other Spanish and Mexican provinces.

The Partido System

One institution of both economic and social importance which developed as a result of the large ranch grants was the *partido* system. Since money was scarce, it was usual for a *ranchero* to pay his sheepherders in food, equipment, and a portion of the increase in the flock—this latter commonly termed a *partido*. Hundreds of small, independent flocks of sheep developed as a result of these *partidos*. A herder could either begin his own herd, and in time set up independently, or, as was usually the case, continue to herd for the *ranchero*, who would permit the use of his lands and aid the herder to market the wool from his flock. This system continues today as a basic part of the sheep industry in New Mexico.

Felicity

Where is that station which can confer a more substantial system of felicity than that of an American farmer, possessing freedom of action, freedom of thoughts, ruled by a mode of government which requires but little from us?

—LETTERS FROM AN
AMERICAN FARMER, 1782

Liberal Mexican colonization laws, enacted in the second and third decades of the nineteenth century, promoted settlement in previously unoccupied areas of New Mexico. Some large private grants were made, but the emphasis changed from individual land grants to colonization grants. Under this latter type a group of settlers, consisting of at least 12 families, were given a grant of land subject to the fulfilling of certain obligations. The settlers were obliged to occupy and cultivate the land within a specific period, usually 2 years from the date in which they were put in possession.

In certain instances, as in the case of *Conejos Grant*, each settler was required to have a gun, a knife, or a set of bow and arrows. One day a year was to be given to community work by each male settler. All dams, ditches, water works, and roads were community property. Certain economic and social aspects of this type of settlement are immediately apparent. There was an interdependence among the settlers.

The welfare of one family affected the welfare of all. Inter-marriage was inevitable. The community of interest and need made for a solidarity in social, as well as political affairs.

Under the treaty of Guadalupe-Hidalgo the United States was pledged to recognize and protect the land and other property owned by the former Mexican citizens residing in the conquered territory. For nearly 50 years this Government procrastinated. A few of the grants were confirmed and patented, only to be challenged in later suits. Technicalities were seized upon to void or reduce the grants. Grantees were forced to pay high legal fees in order to obtain a clear title. Many such fees were paid by granting large tracts of lands to the attorneys.

The change in economic conditions, occasioned by the introduction of Anglo-American principles of trade, commerce, and land taxation, so affected the large ranchers that many were forced to sell their holdings. The resulting displacement of the poorer native settlers caused such a change in the economic and social structure of New Mexico that much of our present situation can be traced directly to this source.

Origins of Trouble

The period of the 1870's and 1880's was the era of the "land pirates." Large stock companies, often financed by foreign capital, purchased millions of acres of agricultural and grazing lands in New Mexico and the Southwest.

One group of wealthy speculators chose southern Colorado and northern New Mexico as the scene for its operations. Their method was

to form a pool, composed of American and English stockholders, incorporate a company for the exploitation of certain lands which were then purchased, and issue stock which was sold in America and Europe. It was usual to offer at least half of the stock in such companies to English, French, and Dutch speculators. So successful was this method that more than a dozen stock companies were formed. The Maxwell Land Grant, Sangre de Cristo Grant, Trenchera Grant, and many other Spanish and Mexican grants were bought for about a third of their real value after which stock was issued worth several times the actual value of the land.

The collaboration of English capitalists with American enterprisers needs little comment here. Their operations, however, provide another interesting chapter in the land history of the Southwest.

Through the efforts of English and Dutch capitalists stock was marketed among certain financial groups in London, Paris, and Brussels. Fabulous stories concerning the wealth of New Mexico grants spread throughout Europe. More than 30 pamphlets were printed in London alone. Reading the pamphlets today, one can readily understand the eagerness of the moderately wealthy Englishman, Frenchman, or Dutchman to buy such securities. Certainly a thousand dollars was cheap for an interest in paradise.

I have been told of a map of the Maxwell Land Grant printed in London in the 1870's which de-

picted the grant in a lush green. The Cimarron Creek, seldom 6 inches deep and dry for months on end, was shown as a bright ribbon of blue with heavily laden steamboats coming up through Texas to the present vicinity of the town of Cimarron.

Land-hungry squatters and homesteaders came with the railroads. As owners of tremendous tracts of virgin soil, the railroad companies advertised for settlers in Europe as well as in the United States, and made special rates to bring the settlers to the Southwest. The vast public domain, used as pasture for huge herds of cattle, became dotted with squatters.

"The nester," as the homesteader was termed, fenced the land around the water holes. Alarmed stockmen, seeing the range rapidly broken up into small holdings, and vital water holes no longer open to livestock, declared war on the newcomers. Familiar to all who read *Western Story* or see western movies are the accounts of the "Lincoln County War" (in which Billy the Kid began his depredations), the Pecos War, the Maxwell clashes, the San Juan disputes, and numerous other struggles for the land.

The cattlemen lost the "Battle of the Public Domain." Some of the homesteaders settled on good grazing land, fenced it and plowed it. Broken windmills, abandoned shacks, fallen fences, and barren land mark their former homes—mute reminders that man must consider the capriciousness of nature when dealing with the land.

The threat of Hitler is such that a business-as-usual attitude is like a foreign army within our borders. —HENRY A. WALLACE

The War Comes

TO THE KITCHEN

By GEORGE E. FARRELL. *The defense program affects the home, too—every home, every kitchen: Linen dish towels are harder to get; items of cloth and fiber that we considered everyday articles are needed elsewhere, and substitutes will have to be used. All this may change the character of farm production.*



LET US look at linen. We grew about 12,000 acres of flax in the United States, mostly in Oregon, in 1940, and produced a bumper crop of 22,000 tons of flax straw. But from the entire production will come only 220 tons of linen fiber. Will the housewife get this output? Probably not.

The Army needs parachute shrouds, parachute belts, packing for steam engines, and propeller shaft bearings. Army shoes will require thread for sewing soles, and harness makers must have thread that will stand sweat and rain. We must have fish, and the nets must be linen. Preparedness means fire hose, and the light unlined hose that hangs in the school hall must be made of flax tow and hemp. The life-saving stations and the Navy must have flax and hemp rope. Our small production of flax will not begin to meet the "must" of the preparedness program. Not more than 10 percent of our linen supply has been produced in this country. War and conquest and demands on shipping are making linen table cloths and napkins treasured possessions.

The hemp from which clothes lines are made also must do its bit to win the war. We have only about 8,000 acres in hemp in Kentucky and Wisconsin. Hemp is needed to make engine-packing rope and fire hose, and there will be little left for twine and webbing for upholstery.

We produce no abaca in the United States. It comes from the Philippine Islands, and that means a long haul over the Pacific Ocean, where every ship is needed to transport rubber, tin, and tungsten. But no nation can fight a war without rope, and abaca makes the best. In normal times we consume from 80,000 to 90,000 tons annually. With a two-ocean navy and new merchant ships slipping down the ways daily, we must have rope.

The farmer, the merchant, the trucker, the painter, the builder, the well-driller—all must have rope, but the men in ships get the first call, and civilian users will have to take what is left: Low-grade abaca, mixed with sisal from Java and henequen from Central America. If you have a good piece of rope, dry it out carefully after removing all mud. Keep

it out of oil and grease and coil and hang it in a dry place. Your next rope may not be so good, and certainly it will not last so long.

The Java sisal and the Mexican henequen make binder twine and rope. The farmer must have the twine to harvest his oats, wheat, and rye, and the merchant must tie up his bundles.

What about cotton, with which our warehouses are overflowing? Cotton can be made into twine by spinning fine threads and combining these threads into a cord—but the problem is not in the spinning mill but on the farm.

Binders that harvest grain are equipped with a knotter that resembles a bird's bill—so delicately adjusted that it ties a knot in the sisal or henequen as fast as the machine can kick out the bundles. This contraption will not handle cotton twine. Even if this could be overcome by installing a new knotter, the problem would not be solved. Bundles of grain lie on the ground and are stacked until threshed. Rain and dampness enter the bundles, and cotton is a perfect host for mildew and fungus that thrive in damp places. These organisms work so fast that they can rot a cotton twine in less than 2 weeks. The sisal and henequen can take it wet or dry, and when the farmer picks up the bundle with his pitchfork, the twine holds.

The shortage of sisal and henequen may make the wool spinners happy. Some careless farmers use sisal for tying fleeces. When the fleeces are unwrapped, short pieces of the sisal fibers are left in the wool, and work havoc in the spinning. Maybe the shortage of sisal will force all wool growers to use paper twine in tying up the fleece.

Street cleaners, firemen, and farmers, use brooms with red fibers that remain stiff, wet or dry. The fiber is palmyra from India. Ships may not be available to bring the 80,000 or 90,000 tons that go into brooms and brushes. We still grow some broomcorn in Illinois and Kansas, but the fiber is flexible and it finds its greatest use in house brooms that are kept dry.

The Scrub Brush

There still is a large demand for the good old scrub brush, the kind with strong wood back and white fibers, made of istle, grown in Mexico. No long ocean trip is involved in importing it, and should it be necessary to bring it by boat, the trip is made through the protected waters of the Gulf of Mexico.

The brown gunny sacking that came as wrapping for new furniture and was used to protect the geraniums from frost is jute, produced only in India. It has a thousand uses—twine for wrapping, bags for grain, backing for linoleum. There is no real substitute at the price we have been paying. We use 120,000 tons annually. Every cubic foot of space in ships in the Oriental trade is allocated with the greatest care and it would require 20 boatloads of 6,000 tons' capacity to meet our needs for a year. Some of this important fiber will be crowded into the ships that cross the Pacific, but the supply certainly will be short. Jute sacking is so important to our daily life that it should not be used to clean muddy boots at the kitchen door, or burned in the furnace. Grain sacks, fertilizer sacks, potato sacks, and furniture covering should be opened carefully, dusted as clean as possible, and turned back into trade for use.

Kapok, known to many primarily as a filling for pillows, grows on a tree in the East Indies and is shipped into this country in normal times at the rate of about 8,000 tons annually. Soldiers need kapok for sleeping bags, life preservers, flying suits—and ships are scarce. We want our Army and Navy to have the best. They may want all the kapok that can be shipped in.

You may hear your neighbor muttering to himself as he paints the back fence or the porch furniture next spring. The brush may be dripping and spreading the paint poorly. He may be blaming the paint manufacturer, but it is probably the paint brush. Take a good paint brush, separate out four or five hairs and hold the ends to the light. You will note that the end of each hair is split into two or three parts. It is the division of the hairs that makes a good paint brush that holds paint and spreads it evenly. The bristle comes from China or Russia—yes, our total supply—5,000,000 pounds annually. Just now they are being trucked a thousand miles over the Burma Road to Rangoon, India, and they are piled there awaiting the ships that come but find little space for such unimportant cargoes. We have hair here at home, but pig hair is short and not stiff enough to make a first-class brush.

We have pig hair, horse hair, and tail hair, but not for civilian use, because the boys at sea must have dry mattresses. This hair now goes into sea mattresses and is perfect for the sailor's use. If it is dunked into water the hair can be pulled out of its denim case and dried on deck. It retains its shape without a cover and will dry in a few hours and be as good as new. Kapok and cotton

at sea slowly absorb moisture and settle down to a hard, damp slab. Our supply of animal hair must take its place in the first line of defense and we civilians must shift to other domestic materials. The hair cloth in lapels of suits may be replaced in 1942 by something else. The Germans call it "ersatz" material. Our list of "ersatz" material is short indeed compared to that of Germany.

Raffia, human hair, rabbit hair, and a thousand other minor items of import that are not necessary or essential to our existence will be missing in the market in 1942.

Versatile America spends no time in weeping over past luxuries—we have started the search for new and better substitutes produced at home or in Central America or South America as part of the good neighbor program.

Peru is growing 20,000 acres of flax. Central America is producing abaca on 2,000 acres. Manufacturers went after the cotton thread and made it so strong that it is now standard equipment for parachute harness. The magic material, nylon, is now made so strong that its tensile strength equals that of stainless steel.

Who can tell?—maybe this temporary inconvenience caused by the preparedness program may give us a better paint brush made from nylon or rayon. It may give us new fishnet material. Already the brush makers are working with the palm fiber of Florida as a substitute for the palmyra of India. Few were inconvenienced by the stopping of Japanese silk shipments.

Preparedness may carry its war into every home, but inconvenience is a small price to pay for it.

John Doe & Family

ON THE FARM LADDER

By PAUL JEHLIK and MILTON ROSOFF. *What progress are ex-tenants making in climbing the "agricultural ladder" toward full ownership? How much difference does home food production make in the kind of life they can have? How much difference do Government payments make? The John Doe family—the average of 38 tenant-purchase families—and its experience in one FSA region throw light on these questions.*



FAMILIES participating in the tenant-purchase program are engaged in adventures new to many of them. They are learning new methods of farming and homemaking, they are taking on new responsibilities and tackling new problems. Not the least of these novelties is the keeping of farm and home record books. These books are intended primarily to help the family in planning and watching their farm and home business, and in checking on how near they are coming to the goals they set for themselves. These books also are useful in giving a picture of how families taking part in this program live, and for measuring their progress as a group.

An analysis of 38 of the record books kept by tenant-purchase families in nine counties in Region XII of the Farm Security Administration tells how these families are being helped toward a more satisfactory way of living.

This is how one family got along, one family that is in reality no family

but the average of all 38. In other words, this is John Doe and family, ex-tenant trying to climb up the famous, sometimes elusive, agricultural ladder.

John Doe, selected in 1939 by a county committee of three farmers as one who might well own a farm under the Bankhead-Jones Act, was a 34 year-old white farmer with a wife and two children. He differed from many of his brother tenant-purchase borrowers in age and number of children. His brothers were from 24 to 46 years of age, one-half being younger than John Doe and one-half older; some of them were childless in 1939, and one had six children.

John and Mary Doe's formal schooling was limited: He completed 9 grades, she, 10. Wives in the other families had had from 7 to 16 years of schooling, and husbands from 5 to 15 years.

The John Doe family lived on a farm somewhere in the FSA region already described. They operated 371 acres of land. This was not typi-

cal of tenant-purchase borrowers in all regions. In Bent County, Colo., and in Eddy County, N. Mex., John Doe could have operated 80 acres of land and in Hansford County, in the Texas Panhandle, perhaps 1,600 acres.

John Doe had farmed for 15 years before coming into the tenant-purchase program. The previous year he had been a renter on shares, as had all the rest of the 38 families except 2—one of these had been a sharecropper and the other a farm laborer. The farming experience of the group ranged from 6 to 31 years.

The housing of the Doe family and their physical surroundings were greatly improved after the father became a tenant-purchase borrower. The family now had an indoor toilet, a kitchen sink, running water. Prospects of having a telephone were good, although electricity was still a question mark.

Operating under the tenant-purchase program, the John Doe family got its living in various ways—from sales of crops, livestock, and livestock

products; from Government and private loans; from Government subsidies; from miscellaneous employment; and from other sources such as oil leases and inheritances. Of the family's gross income which amounted to \$3,435, one-half came from sales of crops, livestock, and livestock products.

John Doe's farm income was supplemented with earnings from outside work that amounted to \$116. There were other tenant-purchase borrowers who also benefited from outside work.

Planning the Spending

A characteristic of this family that sets it off from many other families in the community is that Mr. and Mrs. Doe not only keep farm and home records but also plan farm and home activities a year in advance. They are proud of their achievements in planning—having learned a new skill of real value. Planning means to the John Does a goal to shoot at, within the limits outlined by the farming enterprise. As the family becomes more adept in this new-found technique, planning becomes less of a guessing spree and more of an instrument with which to estimate the vagaries of the home and farm business.

Home production of foods is an essential part of planning for the Doe family. But experience in subsistence planning enables them to estimate the quantity of food the family may be expected to buy, hence how much money the family will need during the year for this item of cash expenditure.

In making their home plans for 1939, John and Mary Doe estimated that they would spend about \$508.

Family living expenditures

	Expenditures	
	Dollars	Percent
January.....	47.51	7
February.....	40.86	6
March.....	42.42	7
April.....	46.78	7
May.....	42.75	7
June.....	38.23	6
July.....	50.18	8
August.....	43.00	7
September.....	62.48	10
October.....	67.29	11
November.....	68.73	11
December.....	84.77	13
Year.....	635.00	100

They actually spent \$635, or about \$127 more than they had planned. But they had learned to plan within conservative limits. Then, too, as there was a greater net income than expected, they felt free to provide better for their family. This, in general, was the position in which most of the other tenant-purchase borrowers found themselves.

The actual and the anticipated expenditures for clothing and personal expenses were about the same. The greatest differences in actual and anticipated expenditures occurred in items such as food, medical care, and miscellaneous.

The family did not make plans concerning the probable monthly expenditure for home living, but it is interesting to examine the general direction of these expenditures. A noticeable increase is shown in cash expenditures during the last 4 months of the year, as cash receipts rise and Government payments are received.

Home production of food was a large item in the plans of John and

Mary Doe. They had planned to produce for home use about 2,000 quarts of milk for all purposes (drinking, cooking, cream, butter, and cheese), approximately 650 pounds of dressed meat, about 160 dozens of eggs, nearly 250 pounds of potatoes, and approximately 1,500 pounds of fruits and vegetables, some of which were to be canned.

In general, the family fared better than it had planned. Milk, meat, fruits and vegetables, and eggs were important in that order, in terms of cash value.

The home production of fruits and vegetables is of great significance in a region where successful home gardens are the exception rather than the rule. John and Mary Doe had been encouraged to buy a pressure cooker. They canned 217 quarts of garden produce. Not all tenant-purchase borrowers did as much canning, but some did more.

In addition to food, the family produced \$4.50 worth of corn cobs. The total value of subsistence then (omit-

Actual and anticipated family living expenditures

Items	Expenditures (dollars)		Expenditures (percent of total)	
	Actual	Anticipated	Actual	Anticipated
Food.....	191.79	129.43	30	26
Clothing.....	95.21	93.01	15	18
Housing, furnishings, and equipment.....	74.69	67.83	12	13
Household operation.....	58.37	68.05	9	13
Medical care.....	55.60	29.45	9	6
Education, recreation, church, etc.....	52.65	42.93	8	8
Insurance.....	42.31	35.85	7	7
Miscellaneous.....	38.86	18.29	6	4
Personal.....	25.52	22.86	4	5
Total.....	635.00	507.70	100	100

ting rent for use of dwelling) was \$278, or 44 percent of the total cash expenditures for family living. Had the home-produced food been computed at retail prices, the cash value would have been considerably higher.

Governmental aid in this instance spelled the difference between a net income large enough to provide for a relatively high plane of living and economic insecurity and depressed family living. For example, the difference between the total receipts of \$3,435 and the total farm expenses of \$2,590 (including the repayment of loans) left a net income of \$845 which included \$529 of Government investment. The Doe family spent \$635 for family living and was able to lay aside \$210 for a rainy day or for expanding the farm business. Had the Government investment (here in the form of AAA and parity payments) not been forthcoming, the Does would have had a net income of only about \$300, or about one-half the amount they spent for modest family living. On the other hand, governmental funds might not have been necessary to maintain the Doe level of living if debt payments had not been necessary.

In general, tenant-purchase families planned to produce, and actually did produce, a large part of their food. But in spite of the high degree of self-sufficiency, indicated by this large production, the cash income from the farm was not enough to provide a decent family living without some form of Government help. In fact, without it the cash income would have been only one-half the amount required for reasonably satisfactory family living. It should be remembered that many tenant-purchase families had a smaller net income than the Doe family. To such families Government payments meant the difference between a rather meager living and a mere subsistence.

Tenant-purchase families fared better than they had expected. Careful planning, effort to follow the plans, Government payments, cooperative supervision by county farm and home supervisors, and home production of large quantities of foods were important reasons. Pride in achievement and ownership may well be the motivating forces in supplying the strength to attack the uncertainties of the future with greater determination.

Whether it be children, whether it be workers, whether it be soldiers, the first step toward a happy, confident attitude is an abundant supply of the right kind of food. On a foundation of good food we can build almost anything. Without it we can build nothing.

—HENRY A. WALLACE

FACTS FROM THE 1940 CENSUS

There were only 67 mules in New Hampshire.

Of the 1,904,000,000 acres of land in continental United States, 1,060,507,355 acres were in farms. Crops were harvested from 321,757,900 acres.

Although the area in farms was greater than ever before, the number of farms declined 3.1 percent since 1930. The 1940 total was 6,096,789, compared to 6,812,350 in 1935, and 6,288,648 in 1930.

United States farmers reported the value of farm implements and machinery as \$3,059,266,327, compared to \$3,301,654,000 in 1930.

The average dollar value of American farms was \$5,518.

Ice cream and other frozen desserts annually manufactured in 2,734 United States factories are valued at \$285,806,781.

Six states—Kansas, Nebraska, North Dakota, Oklahoma, South Dakota, and Vermont—lost population between 1930 and 1940. In no previous decade had more than three States lost.

Americans annually consume 570,000,000 pounds of macaroni, spaghetti, and vermicelli; 100,000,000 pounds of egg noodles and similar egg products, and 10,350,000 pounds of plain noodles.

The population of continental United States on April 1, 1940, was 131,669,275, according to the final count of the Census.

There are four artificial ice factories in Alaska, employing 20 men.

The biggest manufacturing industry in Alaska is fish canning and processing, whose annual production is valued at nearly \$36,000,000.

American cigarette factories make more than 180,000,000,000 cigarettes annually with a valuation at the factory, including tax, of nearly \$1,000,000,000. Thirty-four factories employ more than 27,000 workers who get more than \$26,000,000 in wages.

Binder twine factories, operated in seven penal institutions in the United States, produce 36 million pounds of twine.

United States factories annually produce more than 35,000,000 miles of cotton wrapping twine (38,359,000 pounds), valued at \$7,223,000.

Food, the Basis of INTERNATIONAL Policies

By CHARLES L. STEWART. *Here are some of the bases for post-war reconstruction: Production, economic security, sound nutrition, trade.*



NEITHER democracy nor totalitarianism can persist anywhere except as food and other economic problems of the masses are solved. It would be wise for farmers in all countries to demand that any coming world constitutional order (which many people advocate) be so organized that world trade may be fostered by land, sea, and air, and that democracy, however slowly it may have to develop at the international level, may be securely maintained at national and local levels by making security in economic life available to those who strive to merit it.

A world federation of all governments of good will cannot hope to begin its career with assets as conspicuous as those with which the United States of America began. Besides "the most perfect Constitution ever devised by the mind of man," this Nation had a reservoir of fertile, unoccupied public domain, that served as security for national debt and afforded dissatisfied citizens opportunities to go West.

A world federation, with any powers granted it to help open up tropical or other underdeveloped regions, would have no such asset.

Problems, rather: Money systems less hazardous to income receivers, trade policies conducive to the best use of natural resources, taxes collected only for needs where armaments grow less burdensome, and other economic aims and problems would give the federation a more severe challenge in the twentieth century than our country had in either the eighteenth or nineteenth.

At this point, the hopes of agriculture unite with the hopes of consumers everywhere.

A broad base of sound nutrition must underlie the farm economy of the United States, of the Western Hemisphere, and of a world united on any basis; no supernational order engineered by National Socialist Germany could use guns long to establish and maintain an aristocracy of privilege in consumption, even in an air-power age. Even if a Pan-Germania were to be established from Spain to the Bering Strait, it would have to use food produced in the fields and on the pastures of the New World. The New World has so dominant a food power that dependence upon New World food immediately puts a rope of restriction around any Old World conqueror.

Although the police function may have to be at the fore, at the side, at the rear, and over the top of the new political creature, the forces of economic life will bring more and more democracy and equality into the international structure.

Assurance

In the first place, this structure must throw its favor to the more democratic countries in order to survive, and democracy cannot survive in any country except as income is assured, except as people may increase that assurance by training their brains and their fingers, restraining waste of energy and resources, and finding better ways to meet human needs. Economic security for the masses, or a very definite approach to it, must be obtained by any country that hopes to survive for centuries, rather than merely for hours.

Farm people have always been the leaders in finding peaceful solutions and in making governments administer to common needs. One reason is that farmers are interested in a widely diffused power on the part of the public to purchase the essentials of food and clothing. Although human stomachs can accommodate only so much food, a great many people in the other hemisphere, in other parts of this hemisphere, and in many parts of our own country have not been adequately supplied with the needed food elements. Many people are hungry for democracy, but they will not add much to its future if they and their children, once under democracy, continue to be without food and the other essentials for modern living.

A world union, even in the light

of the Roosevelt-Churchill declarations, is not an assured fact for the 1940's. Regardless of how slowly or how rapidly the way may open for world union, American agriculture, in both its domestic and international aspects, must polarize more and more about a north and south axis.

Whether totalitarianism as developed in Europe becomes something with which the Western Hemisphere has to live for a while longer, or whether a democratic federation on a world scale makes an early appearance, the well-being of farmers from Patagonia to Alaska can be advanced by better planning of Western Hemisphere farms and trade activities.

In developing economic solidarity in the Western Hemisphere in the period of blockade economy, few of the steps to be taken will need to be retraced in a subsequent period of world trade under conditions of improved law and order. Expanding production of tropical products, for instance, would prove to be no less timely under a world constitutional set-up than under a hemispheric set-up. Holding a half world to be set into line for a better era may be no less timely now if the whole world comes in for readjustment.

Economic Order

From the standpoint of farmers in the United States, no less than from the standpoint of all producers and consumers, it seems that economic order among nations, such as economists have been outlining since Adam Smith's *Wealth of Nations* was published in 1776, should be built as opportunity per-

mits. It should not be a byproduct of a world order established to realize military peace but a twin objective in an organized world. To reinvigorate economic life after the present war will require that the world constitutional order be competent on its economic side as well as on its military side. Break-down in the dreams of Pan-American, plus leadership to a realistic world federa-

tion on the part of the United States and her Pan-American and British associates, can pave the way not only to law and order in the skies, but also to economic developments that can support nutrition, agriculture, and world trade. These projected economic developments can create a new trend in the individual well-being of those who do their part with diligence and intelligence.



Books

GOVERNMENT AND THE AMERICAN ECONOMY. *Merle Fainsod and Lincoln Gordon.* W. W. Norton and Co., Inc. New York. 1941. 863 pages.

by PRESTON RICHARDS

IN THE SPAN of 165 years the United States has changed from a loose confederation of States along the Atlantic seaboard to a Federal Union of 48 States, extending from the Atlantic to the Pacific. The expansion has not only progressed territorially, but the activities of the National Government in regulation, promotion, conservation, and protection have become an integral part of the lives of practically all the people. If the United States ever operated under a laissez faire economy, that period has long since passed. While something of the various Governmental activities is generally known, the authors of this book are to be commended for a complete review of the development of the part that government has

played and is playing in our economic life.

The book is divided into 3 parts: Part I deals with the economic background from which has sprung the marked increase in government activities and the influence and evolution of the legal framework within which the developments occurred; Part II relates to government activities in the promotion of the interests of business, agriculture, labor, consumers, and the general public; Part III is concerned with government regulation in the public interest, including conservation of human and natural resources. This is the longest part of the book.

While much of the activities of the Government in regulation and promotion of our economy is a

twentieth century development, it is pointed out that promotional activities were begun early. The most notable example, of course, is the tariff.

Later came public aids to railroads, chiefly in the form of land grants, the Homestead Act which opened the western public domain for settlement and the Hatch Act for encouraging agricultural research. The chief regulatory activity of the Federal Government beginning in the nineteenth century was railroad regulation under the act of 1887, which created the Interstate Commerce Commission. The Sherman Antitrust Act was adopted in 1890, but several years elapsed before the provisions of the act were enforced. It is of interest to note that little or no Federal legislation pertaining to labor was adopted in the nineteenth century.

AFTER the beginning of the twentieth century, Government activities in the field of regulation and protection proceeded at an increased tempo. In the first decade of the century the enforcement of antitrust laws were strengthened, and effective railroad regulation by the Interstate Commerce Commission was begun.

Enactment of the meat inspection and pure food and drug laws provided protection for consumers. And for the first time serious efforts were made in the field of conservation of natural resources. A little later, during the Wilson administration, came the Federal Reserve Board, the Federal Trade Commission, and the Federal Farm Loan Board.

Following World War I with the return to "normalcy," the trend toward increased Government con-

trol and regulation was partly checked. But the depression that began in 1929 brought forth increased government activity in the national economy. The Reconstruction Finance Corporation was organized to give assistance to banks and railroad and insurance companies. And the Federal Farm Board made unsuccessful efforts to stabilize prices of certain farm products.

GOVERNMENT efforts in regulation, promotion control, and conservation were enormously expanded under the New Deal. Aid to agriculture was provided under the Agricultural Adjustment Act. The National Industrial Recovery Act was designed to aid both agriculture and business. The Securities and Exchange Commission was created with power to regulate utility holding companies and trading in securities. Later the Fair Labor Standards Act was adopted. Conservation of natural resources became a major activity with planned utilization of land, water, and mineral resources. And conservation of human resources was greatly strengthened by the provisions for old-age assistance and old-age and unemployment insurance under the Social Security Act.

The authors appropriately point out that the present important position of government in the American economy places a high premium on the skill and ability of Government administrators. "A negative government only requires courage and consistency in its officials, but a positive government requires a constant supply of invention and suggestions."

BRIEFLY STATED, the book

tells what happened and why it happened. This is an important and much-needed contribution, but some readers will be disappointed that no suggestions are given for improvement in government activities re-

lated to agriculture, industry, and labor. Administrators, upon whom so much of the burden of successful operation falls, doubtless would welcome criticisms and recommendations not to be found in this volume.

ANOTHER MORNING. *Wessel Smitter*. Harper & Brothers. New York. 355 pages.

by DONALD M. MITCHELL

IN *Another Morning*, Wessel Smitter humanly and sympathetically presents the absorbing story of the Matanuska Colony in Alaska where "there's so much to fight that we can't fight each other; in order to get along, we have to work together."

The principal theme of the novel is that a society based on cooperation does not have the basic social problems inherent in our present social organization and that, although the transformation is difficult, persons can change their philosophy of life from one of competition to one of cooperation.

This premise is largely tacit, but it recurs throughout the book. The vehicle for the development of the thesis is the experiences of one family in this experiment in cooperative living, isolated from the former homes of the participants and from those who would tend to regard this new way of life as a threat to their own.

No doubt the problems of this family and their adjustments are a composite of those of many families. Clem Williams gradually changes from a man of low status who is afraid, uninformed, and suspicious, to a leader, an inventor of

new methods for attacking strange problems, a man of vision and action.

ONE THESIS used to illustrate the basic theme is that machines should serve men, not that men should serve machines. Machines made possible a much greater production than would have been possible for men to have achieved otherwise.

The mechanism of cooperative ownership of the machines by all members of the community permitted the resulting increase in wealth to be spread over all residents of the community instead of greatly increasing the income of the owner of the machine and not changing—or even reducing—the income of the bulk of the population.

He has the doctor summarize the case very well:

"Every age has its own unique problem. Ours is the problem of machines. We've learned how to use machines to destroy homes and people; we've learned how to use machines to create a few millionaires, but we haven't learned how to use them to bring food and jobs and happiness to people * * *. Today the road to opportunity for the

small farmer is closed. The first step in getting at the solution lies in developing our thinking about the relative importance of machines and people * * *."

"Here in Alaska we've always thought of the land and the timber and the game as belonging to the people * * *. More and more, I think, machines will be regarded in the same way that we, here in Alaska, have learned to think about our natural resources."

Another Morning is a novel, not a scientific analysis of this experimental community. The fundamental postulates of the book are merely presented; they are neither proved nor disproved. Proof must wait until sufficient time has elapsed to judge its successes and its failures and until such time as a critical

and thorough investigation can be made of the colony.

EVEN THOUGH we must await scientific scrutiny of the project before coming to a final judgment, the possible outcome of such an investigation is suggested by this novelist-observer's conviction regarding the project. Speaking of his children, the author has the central character say:

"They will grow up and get married. They will have kids of their own. Machines and tractors will fight for them and not against them. They will never get mortgaged off the land. They will never get rich but they will have their homes and they will lift up each other and the machines will help. And the land will be theirs."

FIRST INTERIM REPORT OF THE SELECT COMMITTEE INVESTIGATING NATIONAL DEFENSE MIGRATION, HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES. United States Government Printing Office. Washington. 118 pages.

by OTIS E. MULLIKEN

THIS FIRST interim report of the committee headed by John H. Tolan is really the second report of this Congressional group. The first was issued last April and was reviewed in the June LAND POLICY REVIEW. Under a continuing resolution, Congress instructed the committee to inquire further "into the interstate migration of citizens, emphasizing the present and potential consequences of the migration caused by the national defense program, the effects of this migration on the various agricultural programs and the development of economic con-

ditions creating stranded communities, and areas of potential migration." Because of the rapid changes under the defense program, the committee plans to issue interim reports as problems develop.

This report is based on testimony presented at five public hearings since April 1941 in San Diego, Hartford, Trenton, Baltimore, and Washington, D. C. Pertinent material presented by many witnesses has been arranged under five headings: Migration and the industrial labor market, migration and the farm labor market, migration and short-

ages of community facilities in defense centers, contract distribution and extent of subcontracting, and post-defense problems. At the end of each section are the committee's recommendations. Part II is the only section bearing directly upon agriculture.

Part I gives data on the volume and character of defense migration with special reference to the areas in which hearings were conducted. Discrimination against Negroes in hiring practices is discussed.

The role of the employment services is described and detailed information is presented on the national

defense training programs. Wage stabilization agreements are accorded too little space. The committee recommends improving the United States Employment Service and advocates that consideration be given the establishment of an employment service financed wholly by Federal funds and operated wholly by Federal personnel. The discontinuance of discriminatory practices in hiring defense workers is also recommended.

THE SCARCITY of suitable housing for defense workers is examined in Part III. Attention is directed to rising rents in defense areas and brief reference is made to the inadequacy of educational, recreational, and health facilities. Recommendations of the committee include the appropriation of additional Federal funds for housing and defense community facilities and legislation for rent control.

The distribution of defense contracts and the extent and problems of subcontracting are discussed in Part IV. Congress is urged to provide for the further decentralization of defense industry and to increase subcontracting to the maximum degree possible.

It is not wholly clear why the four and one-half pages that constitute Part V, "post-defense problems," are included. There may be some advantage in directing attention now to the desirability of a fourth category under the Social Security Act for general assistance upon a grant-in-aid basis. It would seem, however, that any discussion of problems of the magnitude of those that will face the country in the post-defense period might be ac-

Corn

*Aye, the corn, the royal corn,
within whose yellow heart there
is of health and strength for
all the nations. The corn triumphant,
that, with the aid of
man, hath made victorious procession
across the tufted plain
and laid foundation for the social
excellence that is and is to
be. This glorious plant, transmuted
by the alchemy of God,
sustains the warrior in battle,
the poet in song, and strengthens
everywhere the thousand
arms that work the purposes of
life.*

—RICHARD JAMES OGLESBY

corded more thorough and thoughtful treatment.

Part II is concerned mainly with a discussion of the available data on the agricultural labor market and agricultural labor shortages. It consists of a critical examination of the demand and supply reports of the Agricultural Marketing Service, and reports of labor shortages made by State subcommittees on farm labor of the State agricultural planning committees.

To students of agricultural labor problems, it is not news that the statistical data on agricultural labor is inadequate. The committee has, however, performed a service in directing public attention to some of the inadequacies. At the same time it has issued a pointed warning on the indiscriminate use of the existing information.

The Agricultural Marketing Service has collected information from farmers on farm labor supply and demand since 1918. The information now is obtained quarterly by means of a mail questionnaire. Farmers report their opinion of the supply of and demand for agricultural labor as a percentage of normal. It is evident at once that since the information is based on opinion and since the farmer's concept of normal may be somewhat indefinite, the figures do not meet standards of statistical acceptability and should be used with care. Unfortunately, the figures have not always been so used.

The nature and limitations of the data on supply and demand are examined in some detail in a set of questions asked by the committee and answered by the Department. This discussion should be required reading for all persons who utilize

the Department's estimates of demand and supply of labor in discussing agricultural labor market conditions.

UNFORTUNATELY, the impression is given that these estimates are the only data obtained by the Department bearing on the agricultural labor market. No mention is made of the monthly agricultural employment series nor of the quarterly reports on wage rates.

The State farm labor subcommittees of Connecticut, Maryland, and New Jersey come in for some criticism, not in relation to their primary functions of planning but because of statements they had made public with respect to labor shortages. The dissemination of erroneous information on agricultural labor market conditions is to be deplored. The gentle wrist-slapping administered to these subcommittees will probably have a salutary effect on them and on other organizations and individuals who may be tempted to prognosticate on the basis of inadequate information. At the same time, in justice to the subcommittees, it should be remarked that they were not established until early this last summer, and had not had time to orient themselves in the relatively unexplored field of farm labor at the time some incautious statements were issued.

This section focuses attention on a major current problem. Even the casual newspaper reader must have observed items reporting "serious" or "acute" farm labor shortages; in many respects these reports, from a number of sources, have been unfortunate. Not infrequently have they been erroneous and misleading and have added to the confusion

existing in a poorly organized unstable labor market. Despite some local stringencies of labor, a normal characteristic of the agricultural labor market, farm production during 1941 reached record levels and no significant loss of product was sustained because of the reduced supply of labor occasioned by the migration of farmers and farm laborers to industry and the operation of the Selective Service Act.

In October, agriculture was employing 201,000 fewer family workers and 2,000 fewer hired laborers than a year earlier. This is partly due to the same factors responsible for the long-time declining trend of agricultural employment, partly to farmers' adjustments to higher farm wage rates, and partly to the departure of farmers and farm workers to more attractive employment in industry and to service in the armed forces. The important point, however, is that a greater reduction in the supply of workers is almost certain to occur in 1942.

AGRICULTURE will enter the 1942 crop year with a vital program of food-for-defense and with the handicap of a labor market which has never been properly organized and integrated with the needs of agriculture. Under such circumstances, it is imperative that loose thinking and careless talking by the uninformed and by those with selfish interests should not be allowed to hamper the efforts to bring some semblance of order into the agricultural labor market. The committee's examination of the question of labor shortages is indeed very timely.

Recognizing "agricultural produc-

tion as no less vital to the national defense effort than industrial production," the committee recommends that the Farm Placement Service be improved, that consideration be given to establishing it on a Federal basis, and that more adequate statistics on agricultural labor be made available.

The committee also recommends that all official reports of the State subcommittees on farm labor of the State agricultural planning committees should be subject to review by the Department of Agriculture before release to the public. In this connection the committee stated, "Careless and irresponsible advertising of alleged shortages of farm labor subcommittees can produce exactly the same results as irresponsible advertising by private employers. On numerous occasions in the past such advertising has created oversupplies of agricultural labor and has caused to be left stranded in many communities large groups of destitute migratory laborers."

One of the best means of avoiding the dissemination of erroneous and misleading information on the agricultural labor market is to provide adequate and timely official data. It is good news that funds have recently been appropriated to permit the Department to expand its facilities for gathering agricultural labor statistics. Conceivably when this additional data becomes available it may be possible to dispense with the information on demand and supply of which the committee was so critical.

Besides, adequate information is a necessary basis for intelligent action. The need for better farm labor statistics is recognized, but the

best statistics would prove of little value without an efficient farm placement service. It is to be questioned whether the committee, despite its observations in the earlier report, has as yet given enough attention to this phase of the problem.

While from the congressional viewpoint there are obvious advantages to a series of interim reports, the lay reader or the student would

prefer a more thorough and careful discussion of problems such as that presented in the first report of the committee. Those acquainted with that report will be disappointed in the hurried summary presentation of this first interim report which offers only a suggestive outline. A more complete picture and considered conclusions remain for some subsequent report.

AMERICA'S ECONOMIC STRENGTH. *C. J. Hitch.* Oxford University Press. London. 114 pages.

by KATHRYN H. WYLIE

AMERICA'S economic strength is an ambitious subject to cover in 114 pages. Mr. Hitch describes the resources of the United States and throws in for good measure its recent economic history and an appraisal of its present war strength. The book is not the result of original research, as the author states frankly, but it gives a broad picture in readable language for the lay reader.

Americans already know many of the facts of America's economic strength—that the resources of land, forests, minerals, and natural power are large; that the productivity of American industry is higher than that of any other country (more than twice that of Great Britain); and that its national income and potential capacity for industrial production are tremendous. They do not realize, perhaps, that the average productivity of agriculture is only a third as large as that of New Zealand and less than half as large as Australia's, or that America has only

4 to 5 percent of the world's good agricultural land.

AVERAGES hide the relatively productive farmers of the Middle West and California and also obscure the submarginal "Okies" of the Great Plains and the "Lesters" of the Old South. The composition of the average is not given in the book; if grazing is included in the averages for the newer agricultural countries, productivity per man would be expected to be higher than in a cotton-growing area.

It is in manufacturing that the United States has greatest superiority. More capital (machines and energy) per worker, larger-scale production, and technical progress combine to make American industry the most efficient in the world.

The industries where the largest gains in productivity occur are those where the size of plant has increased and machinery of large-scale production has been perfected.

New Deal recovery and reform measures have enabled the United States to catch up with other progressive countries in social legislation and have contributed toward a gradual shift in attitude away from "rugged individualism," but have not created a new economic society. Americans look more and more to the Federal Government in economic matters, but still believe there is opportunity for individual achievement.

ALL OF THIS is background material for a discussion of how effectively the United States can shift into war-time production. Peace-time America includes no war industries, but the industries that are most important in a transfer to war production are the most efficient ones—steel, motor cars, chemicals. Resources and capacity are available. Potential strength as measured by national income is greater than that of the Axis powers, but industry is

not geared to war production. The great difficulty is time.

"It requires a year to build a plant to make big guns, and from a year to 18 months more to make the guns." Technical bottlenecks here, insistence on excess profits and speedy amortization there (we might also add labor strikes both here and there) slow the machinery of production to a snail's pace.

After Mr. Hitch reviews the possibilities in terms both of resources and speed with which they can be converted to war-making tools, he concludes that the combined economies of the British Empire and the United States are a match for the Axis-controlled resources in the long run. But it is not the long run that will determine Britain's fate in the next year. From the standpoint of aid to Britain, the most favorable short-run policy for the United States is to remain a nonbelligerent (in the Far East, too!) until her mass production industries "have started to function on a war basis."



Letters

OREGON'S FOREST PROBLEM

SIR:

Reference is made to the article in the October 1941 issue entitled "Oregon Tackles the Forest Problem."

The article sets out two major problems: (1) Shrinking tax bases and unemployment arising out of the destruction of growing stock by the customary cutting

and skidding methods; (2) failure of natural regrowth resulting from fires in the highly inflammable, slowly decomposing masses of coniferous slash left after logging. This situation in turn is a product of (a) cutting far in excess of growth during the logging period, and (b) high-lead or similar skidding methods destructive to the residual stand.

To what extent will these problems, particularly the first, be minimized in the future by the new legislation? The author stresses what is being done to insure the ultimate productivity of lands *already* clearcut or otherwise denuded. These measures involve public acquisition via tax reversion, purchase, etc., and more stringent control of fire on restocking areas. He does not adequately explain just what is being done to *prevent further destruction of growing stock in the stands that have not yet been logged*. Yet these stands involve some 12,000,000 acres of land containing the greatest per acre volumes and highest quality of remaining merchantable timber in the State.

The only inkling we are given is a slight reference to the "restocking regulation" provision in one of the 1941 forest acts.

Since an act of this kind may or may not be significant, depending upon the nature of its requirements, it would have been helpful to spell out these details and the extent to which they might be expected to meet the key economic problems.

The leaving of seed trees is an advance in the right direction (provided, of course, that the scattered trees so left do not dry out, break or blow over before they produce a good seed crop), but the provision on the face of it represents a pitifully inadequate gesture towards putting into practice such types of cutting as will provide continuous employment and an even flow of public revenues.

Where ecological factors permit, the "clear cutting with seed tree" method, when rotated *over a large number of relatively small units* of the total area upon which given communities depend for well being and security, may suffice to meet the above needs. Assuming this method to be ecologically applicable in all

cases, does the Oregon law specify this specific type of sustained yield cutting? If so, does it require the submission of cutting budgets by timber operators giving the total area and volume to be cut over the entire rotation period and the area and volume to be cut in each of the cutting cycles making up that rotation? If not, I seriously question whether Oregon forest communities can look forward with any high hopes, within the next generation at least, to minimizing the very conditions which have given rise to the new legislation.

I believe that a more adequate discussion of the benefits and shortcomings of Oregon's new forest laws from the standpoints of woods and mill worker, local community and national interest, would be revealing to the readers of LAND POLICY REVIEW.

—BERNARD FRANK, OFFICE OF
LAND USE COORDINATION.

POST-WAR PLANNING

SIR:

The July LAND POLICY REVIEW presented some very interesting angles in connection with post-war planning. The subsequent letters emphasize the differences of opinion as to what road seems logical.

In my opinion, the statement "If we are to have a sound agriculture, we must think more about the economics of the whole country and less about agriculture itself" represents the real crux of the problem.

Agriculture, industry, and labor represent the "pillars of Hercules" upon which this nation rests. They must all be considered in any program of planning, and not on an individual basis, but as a solidified trio. Agriculture can produce the food, labor furnish the energy, and industry provide the industrial products

needed by all. Artificial support of any of these "pillars" should be on a temporary basis, and planning should be directed towards necessary adjustments of all three.

Income is entirely a relative matter, and a decrease in income injures no one if cash expenses decrease proportionately. A program based on these premises would provide for continued employment on substantial scale in the production of consumer goods. Reorganizations would be necessary over a wide field, but would, in the end, lead towards a "Balanced Nation" instead of the goal "Balanced Agriculture."

—T. R. HOBART, FARM SECURITY
ADMINISTRATION, CORVALLIS,
OREG.

SIR:

In reply to the editorial invitation in *LAND POLICY REVIEW* for July 1941, the following is offered as a solution of the farm, labor, and unemployment problems.

Increase Federal land ownership enough to take care of all tenant farmers and sharecroppers. Ultimate aim: The Federal ownership by purchase of all farm land, to be leased on a family basis. It would be the life leasehold system of England, but with Uncle Sam as the only landlord. In Saskatchewan and Alberta the "community pastures" carry out the same idea, and land is not sold but the grazing privilege is sold for 50 cents per head per month for cattle. Crested wheat grass, which I first brought from Russia after a tour in 1897-98 is used over vast areas and is best for this purpose. It even crowds out Russian thistles. In 1938 I visited a "community pasture" of 30,000 acres in Saskatchewan. This grass, called Gitniak by the Russian peasants, has six times the carrying capacity for livestock of the native prairie grass in Saskatchewan and Alberta.

Uncle Sam should modernize these farms and lay out new ones, the cost to be amortized over a century. This would give work to millions. Modern homes, granaries, silos, barns—Uncle Sam can afford to improve his own farm, to keep workers out of the city slums.

Land is a national heritage and to ensure our survival as a Nation it must be protected against soil erosion and loss of fertility. The leases could guard against all such losses.

A popular vote would probably disclose that most farmers would gladly sell their present insecure holdings of mortgaged farms.

In the course of many years, I have asked a large number of farmers this question: If it is true, as some economists predict, that most farmers (because of international and other causes beyond our control) will eventually lose their land, would you sooner be a tenant of a corporation or of the Federal Government? They always vote for Uncle Sam! Federal tenants would have a fully modernized home with a life lease. As workers in food production, they would receive at retirement age, the use of a small plot near town and a life pension. This would give the young farmers a chance to establish homes. Under present conditions the cards are stacked against the farmer, because he is outvoted 3 to 1 on election day. His natural eagerness to be a capitalist dooms him to perpetual frustration.

The United States Census places the total value of farms in America at \$33,000,000,000. Interest on this amount at 3 percent would be \$1,000,000,000 a year. Perhaps Federal Land purchase bonds could be sold at less than 3 percent.

This program, although it must be administered by the United States Department of Agriculture, should be decentralized into State or even smaller units, closely affiliated with the State Colleges of

Agriculture. All this is a matter of detail. The county agricultural agents would be highly necessary in this program and should be assigned federally owned homes; the same with county horticulturists and other specialists as needed, including home workers to carry on the nutrition program. All these are shock-absorbers between science and practice and must be entirely independent of local financial support.

The part-time labor needed in the great factory farms in fruits, vegetables, and livestock, could be done by workers traveling as needed in the growing season, and living in federally-owned sanitary summer camps. But the workers would have permanent homes with several acres of land, so that the children would have schooling.

Mechanization on the farm is forcing many thousands of renters from the land into the cities. Read the important article "Goodbye to the Homestead Farm," by Paul S. Taylor in *Harper's Magazine*, May 1941. Theoretically, half or more of all farmers could be sent to town, but what would they do? Children are the most important crop, and the only safeguard against future invasion. Present estimates place the average American family at 3.8 persons. In other words, our population has reached the peak, and is slowing down.

It is best to preserve private initiative. We are the most productive people in the world. The bottleneck is in distribution. The present plans of federal purchase of surplus foods are supremely wise and should be vastly extended. Nothing should go to waste. Destruction of food is only a method to bolster up the value of land. But land should have no value if the people are to survive.

It should be a nationally owned tool for the production of food. Two free meals each day at all schools would take care of much surplus, and teach the latest

methods in preparation of foods. Food stamps are the first step in the direction of abundance instead of scarcity. Victory without vitamins is impossible.

Land is a factory for the production of food and clothes, but should not be an instrument of exploitation. When the factories came, the worker laid down his tools and became a laborer. Mechanization makes it increasingly necessary for the farmer to give up private ownership of land, and receive security, recognition, and safety in working a part of Uncle Sam's farm. Day-by-day capitalism on the farm is becoming increasingly impossible.

This plan places road and school taxes on a national basis, and necessitates the federalization of all schools and highways. The housing problem can be solved the same way, through the construction of millions of comfortable homes, to be leased with the cost amortized over a century. Why not comfort instead of slums?

Wars are won by the full employment of all workers. Unemployment destroys morale. Recent engineering estimates indicate that for full employment one-third of all workers must do State work, either as soldiers at the front or as laborers behind the lines. The automatic machine is a friend, if properly used, but work must be found for the millions now displaced by machines. Farms, houses, highways, forests, education, health service, forums, gymnasiums, research, hospitals, recreation, theaters, libraries, music, art—all this and much more—all need workers. A fully employed nation can easily pay war debts. "Frustration breeds aggression." There is no need for either.

In his brilliant history of industry through the centuries, "Technics and Civilization," Lewis Mumford maintains that security of tenure is necessary for conservative farming "and not until the community itself holds the land will the

position of the farmer be a desirable one." The first step toward rationalization in agriculture is the common ownership of the land.

Charles Abrams states in his "Revolution in Land" that "Land nationalization is not a panacea. Nor has it even the merit of novelty. Yet today, for the first time, it begins to appear necessary if immense groups of our population are to be saved from misery. It is no longer envisaged as a convenient way of curbing land speculation and diverting the golden stream of profit from it into the coffers of the State. Socialization of profits has given way to socialization of losses. More than at any other time in our history, we are being irresistibly swept in that general direction."

The age-old conflict between agriculture and industry increases with every new machine.

What can be done for the mountain dwellers? "The hillman loves hills," said Dr. C. Judson Herrick. "It is bred in his bone. He does not argue about it. He does not sentimentalize about it. He lives it. And given hills with contentment, he is content"

The mountain dwellers of Europe and the Orient live largely on grafted chestnuts, carob, and other nut trees. To provide a steady market for such products, the government would need to purchase most of the crop for general distribution.

This problem is covered in "Tree Crops," by J. Russell Smith.

A thought about land nationalization in England. The Labor party, as well as many Conservatives and Liberals, favors the plan. Sir A. Daniel Hall in an address to the British Association at Nottingham in 1937, said:

"It is easy to envisage the planning of the land of Great Britain to ensure an increase in its productivity and population if it could be treated as a great estate managed by a business corporation with ample capital to enable it to take a long view about development. Such a plan can only be attained under the national ownership of the land. A plan is necessary, not only in the broad national interests of production, but also to prevent the short-sighted destruction of the most valuable agricultural land and of the countryside which is everywhere going on to satisfy immediate urban requirements. British land is too limited and too precious to be left to the unrestricted play of commercial exploitation." The statement is quoted in "Land Tenure Policies at Home and Abroad," by Henry William Spiegel. In England the coal mines have recently been nationalized.

—NIELS E. HANSEN, EMERITUS
PROFESSOR OF HORTICULTURE IN
CHARGE OF FRUITS AND ORNA-
MENTALS, SOUTH DAKOTA STATE
COLLEGE, BROOKINGS.

Deliver

The American farmer will deliver on 1942 production goals just as he has delivered in every emergency that has ever beset democracy in the past.

—M. CLIFFORD TOWNSEND



For Your Attention

CHANGES IN TECHNOLOGY AND LABOR REQUIREMENTS IN LIVESTOCK PRODUCTION. DAIRYING. Robert B. Elwood, Arthur A. Lewis, and Ronald A. Struble. BAE in cooperation with Work Projects Administration, National Research Project. (Studies of Changing Techniques and Employment in Agriculture. W. P. A. Report No. A-14.)

This report completes the National Research Projects monographs dealing with changes in the technology of agriculture and their effects on farm employment. Together with a study on poultry production, it summarises the developments in technology and labor requirements in livestock enterprises.

MINNESOTA FARM HANDBOOK 1941. State and Federal Agricultural Services. U. S. D. A. in cooperation with the Minnesota Extension Service. 58 pages.

This is another in the series of State farm handbooks, listing the agricultural services of the State and of the United States Government that are directly available to farmers.

ECONOMIC ASPECTS OF FARM TRACTOR OPERATION; Selected References, 1935-March 1941. Compiled by Nellie G. Larson. BAE Econ. Libr. List 26. 52 pages.

These references, relating primarily to farm-management and economic aspects of tractor use and operation, are limited to studies of tractor operation on actual farms, and especially on small farms.

COUNTRY BANKING IN WISCONSIN DURING THE DEPRESSION. By Fred L. Garlock. U. S. D. A. Technical Bulletin 777. In cooperation with the Wisconsin Agricultural Experiment Station. 112 pages.

At the beginning of the depression, country banks in Wisconsin were engaged more extensively in savings banking than in commercial banking. Assets were mainly capital loans to local farmers and business concerns and long- and medium-term bonds. Large risks were involved in many of these bonds and loans, indicating that the banks had supplied considerable amounts of venture capital.

With the depression came severe shrinkages of deposits which necessitated the liquidation of a substantial portion of the loans and investments held by these banks. Huge losses resulted because of the depreciation of securities. Losses were particularly heavy on long-term bonds of medium and low grades and on the banks' capital loans.

Measures for strengthening banks to avoid a recurrence of such conditions are listed.

STATE AIDS AND RURAL PROPERTY TAXES IN WISCONSIN. Kenneth H. Parsons, Benjamin H. Hibbard, and Arthur J. Walrath. Wisconsin Agricultural Experiment Station Research Bulletin 138. 48 pages.

In his foreword, Noble Clark, Associate Director of the Wisconsin Experiment Station says:

"The study, herein reported, summarizes the more important historical developments in the Wisconsin system of state aids. It also evaluates some of the results that the system has made possible. The taxpayers of Wisconsin, as well as public officials

and students of government, should find the bulletin informative and useful. The Agricultural Experiment Station particularly recommends that the publication be read by those who are interested in methods of reducing the tax load borne by farm lands."

MAN IN THE "CUT-OVER"; A Study of Family-Farm Resources in Northern Wisconsin. George W. Hill and Ronald A. Smith. Wisconsin Agricultural Experiment Station Bulletin 139. Madison. Rural Surveys Section, Work Projects Administration cooperating. 71 pages.

In the 18 counties that make up the "cut-over" of Wisconsin as discussed in this bulletin, live one-sixth of Wisconsin's farm families. Per capita costs for relief, education, health, local government, roads, and other public services are higher than in any other section of the State. Two types of settlers are attracted to the area—those whose capital and abilities have not permitted them to compete in the better farm areas and those who come because the land is cheap. The latter as a rule prosper while the first type of settler has little chance to succeed.

This study analyzes the forces that go to make up the "human factor" as it contributes to the varying success of these farmers.

FARMERS AND DEFENSE. Claude R. Wickard. Washington, D. C., American Council on Public Affairs. 1941. 40 pages.

In his Introduction M. L. Wilson says: "Today, one of the most convincing signs of the vitality of our democracy is the revival of the discussion method * * *

"Nowhere in our national life has the discussion method developed as rapidly and as effectively as in agriculture. In the planning, developing, and administration of our national farm programs, group discussion has been at the foundation of the development of economic democracy for agriculture. For this reason, and because agriculture occupies such an important position in our national welfare,

this booklet, which deals with the situation of agriculture in relation to our national welfare and to our problems in the world, should make an outstanding contribution to the materials on basic problems needed for widespread discussion."

Mr. Wickard is himself a farmer and he has "the outlook of the average farmer," and is emphatic that "the farmers' stake in this world conflict is as great or greater than that of any other group."

THE ECONOMIC DEFENSE OF THE WESTERN HEMISPHERE. A STUDY IN CONFLICTS. A Symposium of the Latin American Economic Institute. American Council on Public Affairs. Washington, D. C. 170 pages.

Danton said that in order to win a war a nation needs audacity, more audacity, and still more audacity. Lord Kitchener's requirements for successful war were men, more men, and still more men. The collection of papers which the Latin American Economic Institute presents herewith emphasizes that we need organization, more organization, and still more organization.

While the authors' opinions and points of departure are often conflicting and lead to divergent conclusions, all of them have one view in common: emphasis on the lack of organization in connection with the economic efforts of the United States. The left and right wings in this symposium, business men and academicians, North and South Americans, unanimously preach organization and planning as the main principle of hemisphere defense.

DRAINAGE DISTRICT ORGANIZATION AND FINANCE, 1879-1937. Illinois Tax Commission. Springfield. 1941. Work Projects Administration Cooperating. 213 pages.

This volume, seventh in the series dealing with finances of local governments in Illinois, concerns quasi-governmental units known as drainage districts and their organization and finance since 1879. The description of the financial problems of these districts is limited to the period 1925-37. A thorough investigation would entail a study of the economic aspects of

agricultural production and would involve such factors as intensity of land use, comparative crop yields, and other technical problems beyond the scope of research activity of the Tax Commission. However, it is hoped that this volume will provide a portion of the basic data for broader studies by other agencies.

READING LISTS IN REGIONAL PLANNING. Harvard University. Department of Fine Arts. Oscar Sutermeister. Cambridge, Mass.

The materials contained in this pamphlet were used in an introductory survey course in regional planning, first given in the 1940 Harvard Summer School and repeated in the 1941 program of the Division of University Extension.

WANT IN THE MIDST OF PLENTY. The Genesis of the Food Stamp Plan. Ray Harvey. Washington, D. C. American Council on Public Affairs. 35 pages.

A new concept of political power—the service state—is emerging. Listed as the forces from which it derives are frustrated youth, disillusioned middle age, disappointed old age, and the failure of the social order generally to supply an adequate amount of goods to the greatest number of people.

Of the New Deal programs, the author has selected the surplus distribution program as one of the most significant. The three major objectives of this program have been designed to remedy, at least in part, serious dislocation in the production and distribution of farm commodities. These are: (1) export programs; (2) diversion of farm produce to new uses; (3) encouragement of increased domestic consumption.

The origin and history of this program are outlined, and the direct distribution of surpluses and the workings of the stamp plan are described.

A section is devoted to the expansion of domestic markets which may be expected to take place under direct purchase and distribution methods; the politics of surplus distributing and the Surplus Marketing Administration and national defense are discussed.

COMMUNITY EMPLOYMENT PROBLEMS UNDER DEFENSE. A Memorandum of the Council for Democracy. Washington, D. C. American Council on Public Affairs. 23 pages.

This account of what the local defense job is and what methods for doing it have been worked out is directed to residents of local communities in the hope that it may help in guiding the energy and enthusiasm available in these communities.

The main opportunity and the Nation's most immediate need comes under the head of production. The aim is to obtain a maximum of production as quickly as possible by using the tools, machines, factory space, and skilled workers that the Nation already possesses. The Office of Production Management and the Army and Navy procurement offices find it difficult to do business directly with a multitude of small concerns, and the practice of "farming out" the work has grown up. Actual arrangements are concluded between the primary contractors and the subcontractors. Regional offices have been established by the OPM in the 12 Federal Reserve Districts to gather information about thousands of little machine shops where work can be farmed out.

CHANGING TECHNOLOGY AND EMPLOYMENT IN AGRICULTURE. John A. Hopkins. U. S. Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Agricultural Economics. 189 pages. (Work Projects Administration, National Research Project on Reemployment Opportunities and Recent Changes in Industrial Techniques.)

This report, in making an appraisal of the effect of technological changes on employment in agriculture since 1909, sums up 12 monographs published by the Work Projects Administration National Research Project and others still in preliminary form. However, in this report, more attention is paid to the consequences of these changes for the Nation and for the farm population and considerable material not found in the monographs is added.

From 1909 to 1936, employment in agriculture in this country declined about

10 percent while the population of the country increased more than a third. The greater part of this decline occurred during two periods, the War of 1914-18 and the late 1920's. In the earlier period the decline was chiefly in the number of hired workers, while in the 1920's most of the decline was in family workers. During the depression years a third period of change occurred in that the increase in population backed up on the farms and hired workers were laid off while family workers increased.

Discussion is included of problem areas in agriculture, barriers to increased farm employment, agricultural employment and the general economic balance.

The question is raised as to who has benefited from technological improvements. Has it been the farmer or the consumer, or has the lot of either of them been bettered? It is clear that farmers in problem areas have not profited and that many farmers in other regions have gained little if anything in the way of greater income. In areas where improved methods have been applied, only those farmers who adopted the new methods shortly after they became economically as well as technically feasible reaped profits from them.

PENNSYLVANIA PLANNING. Issued by Pennsylvania Department of Commerce, State Planning Board, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania.

This January-March 1941 issue (v. 7, No. 5) of Pennsylvania Planning is given over to defense and its variations as they are affecting conditions within the State. Articles included, only one of which is signed, are: Pennsylvania's Contribution to the National Defense; Pennsylvania's Pooling Plan; Put Your Plant to Work for Defense; Vocational Training; and The Pennsylvania Labor Market, by George P. Scurria. Recent planning and zoning activities are listed and a selected bibliography on defense is included.

CALIFORNIA FARM HANDBOOK 1941, PUBLIC SERVICES AVAILABLE TO AGRICULTURE. U. S. Department of Agriculture in cooperation with the Uni-

versity of California. 114 pages. Washington, D. C.

This Farm Handbook lists the agricultural services available to farm people in California from Federal, State, and county sources. The 58 services listed include those relating to agricultural education, debt adjustment, crop insurance, farm labor, grades and standards, land use planning, loans, relief, rural electrification, and soil conservation.

FOREST PRODUCTS AND DEFENSE. Carle P. Winslow, Madison, Wis., U. S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Forest Products Laboratory in cooperation with the University of Wisconsin.

Discoveries in new and wider uses of wood have gone so far today that it is essential to our national defense to keep abreast of them. A few of the most important are described, either from the standpoint of quantity or of technical problems inherent to their use. These are: Lumber and Structural Material, Air-raid Precautions, Containers, Pulp and Paper, and other Chemical Products, and Wood in Aircraft.

FARM WAGE BOARDS. (1941 Legislative Problems No. 8.) University of California, Bureau of Public Administration. Berkeley. 26 pages.

This review is one of a series, prepared at the request of California legislators and is based upon extensive materials that could form the basis of a more detailed report if specifically requested. To maintain its value as an impartial fact-finding agency, the Bureau avoids definite recommendations on controversial subjects.

The replacing of the traditional farm hand, who was often a neighbor's son and who lived as one of the family in his employer's home, by large groups of workers employed under industrial conditions has brought with it many employment problems. In California, during the period 1927-39, in agriculture and fishing, 124 strikes involved 110,619 workers.

Farmers and the people of the country need not repeat the experiences of the 1929 crash and the depression that followed. Production is going up and we need to keep it up after the present emergency is over. Our biggest job is to distribute and consume what we are able to produce. In this field we still have much to learn. It would be suicide not to prepare for larger consumption so we can make more effective use of our productive resources. Intelligent planning and positive action now will build a stronger America.

—ROY F. HENDRICKSON

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